MUSEUM STORIES FOR CHILDREN

SERIES II

NUMBER ONE

FEBRUARY 28, 1925

FIELD MUSEUM OF NATURAL HISTORY

ROOSEVELT ROAD AND LAKE MICHIGAN

CHICAGO

The President and Board of Trustees of Field Museum are glad to welcome you once more to a series of entertainments for children. They hope that you will enjoy every one of them.

D. C. DAVIES, Director.

ANIMAL NEIGHBORS OF THE FOREST PRESERVES

Winter will soon be over and the time for hikes and picnics will be here. Most of you will go more than once to the forest preserves around Chicago and there you will want to meet your friends,—the brave little animals who live in the woods and meadows all the year round. A new case has lately been placed just behind the elephants in Stanley Field Hall. It will show you every one of the animals to be found near Chicago and you can learn still more about them from the cases in the corridor just east of Pullman Hall and in Hall 15.

Perhaps the first animals you will see in the woods will be the squirrels. Grey squirrels are sure to be there running about the trees in which they live or, perchance, digging for nuts buried last fall among the tree roots. They work from sunrise until about ten o'clock, take a long nap at noon and are busy again from mid-afternoon until sunset. The fox squirrel may be seen at any time of day. He does not store up food and in early spring you may find him eating buds and bark of trees. The little flying squirrel never leaves his home in a hollow tree during the day unless he is disturbed. You can drive him out by pounding on the tree with sticks if you are fortunate enough to discover the one where he lives. Although called "flying" squirrel, he does not fly but rather sails through the air as he jumps from tree to tree.

A close relative of the true squirrels is the ground squirrel or chipmunk. He lives in a ground burrow made up of many passage-ways, a sleeping-room and several store-rooms. Very much like him, is the striped gopher. Both of these little fellows will be seen playing about stonepiles and tree-roots or in open, sunny places; and, if you are very quiet, you may hear them shrilly chattering or "singing" to their neighbors. They love sunshine and warmth; but they dislike cold weather and escape it by sleeping all winter.

In every wood, you are sure to see the cotton-tail rabbit. He can live almost any place; but the country he likes best is that overgrown with briar patches into which his enemies cannot follow him. He may try to escape your notice by crouching motionless.

The two wild mice of our groves and fields are the meadow mouse and the white-footed mouse. The meadow mouse cuts little inch wide paths through the deep grasses as he hunts for food and water. The white-footed mouse lives much as squirrels do; and he may often be found nesting in deserted bird-nests. He usually sleeps during the day; but you may see him in cloudy weather.

The muskrat builds his cabin at the edge of streams or in the midst of marshes. It contains one or two rooms entered through a tunnel which opens below the freezing line of the water. In winter he is busy beneath the ice collecting the water plants on which he lives. In summer, you may see him floating and swimming slowly about in the shadow of the willow trees.

The woodchuck or groundhog is the lazy member of the rodent family. He sleeps all winter; and in the summer, he leaves his burrow but three times a day—early in the morning for breakfast, again, at noon, for lunch and a sunbath, and late in the afternoon for dinner. Do you wonder that he is fat?

The smallest mammal that you will find in the woods is the common shrew. In fact, he is so small and so active that you may not find him at all. He spends most of his time burrowing under leaves and old logs for the insects and worms upon which he lives. His cousin, the mole, will be found burrowing just a few inches below the soil for the same kind of food.

Preying upon all the smaller animals of the forest, is the mink. He is up at any time of day or night, winter and summer, hunting on land and in the water for the fish, animals and birds which are his food. His cousin, the weasel, is even more blood-thirsty; but he is a night hunter and you will seldom see him abroad in the daytime. Both of these animals are very slender and quick. Their relative, the skunk, has grown fat and slow in his movements because he never has to run away from his enemies and because his chief foods,—grasshoppers, crickets, birds eggs and young mice—can be caught at night with little effort.

Another night prowler is the raccoon. He eats almost everything he finds; but before he eats it, he must wash it; so he is never found far from water. You may not see him; but you will find his long, narrow foot prints along the edges of streams.

And last of all are the bats. They will begin their evening flight just as you are leaving the forest; and they may come quite close to you in their search for mosquitoes. You will find five different kinds near Chicago.

Be sure to study all of these animals in the Museum now; and when you see them next summer in the woods, you will recognize them easily.

DOROTHY COCKRELL, Guide lecturer

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NUMBER TWO

MARCH 7, 1925

FIELD MUSEUM OF NATURAL HISTORY

ROOSEVELT ROAD AND LAKE MICHIGAN

CHICAGO

The moving pictures today tell you the Story of Beginnings in very long words. To help you to understand it, the story is repeated here in simpler words.

D. C. DAVIES, Director.

THE STORY OF BEGINNINGS

"How did everything begin?" is a question that boys and girls and men and women often ask and have been asking for many centuries. Some men, called scientists, did more than ask. They set about to find an answer to the question. Astronomers saw the birth of stars in the sky and said, "Perhaps our earth, which is like a star, was born in the same way." The Physicists, who understand great natural forces such as gravitation and light and sound added their knowledge to the story. Chemists studied the reactions of the elements of earth and told us more. Geologists dug into the layers of rock that make up the earth's crust and found there the record of past ages. And Biologists, studying plants and animals now living learned how changes in their structure and appearance are possible. We cannot hope to understand why scientists believe their story of beginnings until we have studied the sciences; but even now we can learn something about what they believe.

Scientists are even now actively studying the beginnings of the earth. So far, we do not know how it began; but we do know that, once formed, water gathered on it in the form of seas and streams. As the streams washed down over the rocks, sand and mud were made and carried into the sea. They gathered on the ocean floor and, as centuries went by, gradually hardened into layers of rock. Time passed, and there were many changes in the earth's surface. Land which had been beneath the ocean was raised above it and in many places the earth's surface crumpled and tilted the rock layers on edge. It is in the layers of rock thus laid bare that geologists have been able to read the story of the beginning of life.

No one knows how life started nor exactly where nor in what form. It may be that the first plants were like those in the low case at the north end of Hall 29 and that the first animals were like the amoeba in the first case at the east end of Hall 19. We do not know what they were like because they left no trace in the rocks. Animals and plants which developed from those early forms, we do know; for they can still be seen in the form of fossils imbedded in the layers of rock beneath the soil.

Here in our own Museum, in Hall 38, you can see many fossilized animals and plants. If you begin at the south end of the room, you will find, in the first case on the east side, just how fossils were made; and in the opposite side of the same case are examples of the earliest known forms of life. There are worm-borings there and fossil jelly-fish; and beside them are strange little three-part animals called trilobites. In neighboring cases are other interesting animals—sponges, corals, shells that once protected sea worms and animals related to our clams, curious animals called crinoids that were rooted to earth just as plants are, scorpion-like animals and many fish. All these were water animals and while they were living in the seas, plants were developing in the form of sea weeds. Later great trees began growing along the sea's margin. Some of them were covered with water when they died and were turned into coal. In the center of the hall, is a tree trunk of coal and near the windows are several cases of fossilized bark and leaves. Do some of the leaves look like our ferns?

All of these animals and plants lived in a time which scientists call the Period of Ancient Life. With the next cases, you come to the Period of Middle Life and here you find air-breathing animals beginning to develop. This period is sometimes called the Age of Reptiles because it was then that the great lizards lived. Between the fishes and reptiles were animals which, like our frogs, spent the first part of their life in the water, breathing through gills and the last part, breathing with lungs as do true land animals.

There were many kinds of lizards in the Age of Reptiles. Some of them lived on land, some lived in the water, some flew through the air. Many of them were meat eaters. Others lived entirely on plants. In the cases at about the center of Hall 38, you will find examples of each kind.

And following the Period of Middle Life came the Period of Recent Life. Many of its animals were the ancestors of our animals of today. In the cases on the east side of the room, you can trace the development of our horse from a little, five-toed animal no larger than a collie dog to the one-toed horse we know. You can see the ancestors of our deer, a camel, a sabre-tooth tiger, and a cave bear that once lived in North America. On the opposite side of the hall are relatives of our armadillos and rodents and at the end of the room are great animals which have been extinct but a short time, geologically speaking,—the great mammoths and mastodons.

In the last case on the west side of the hall, you will find, for the first time, the skulls of men. They appeared on earth at some time during this Period of Recent Life—no one knows just when; but it was not until the last great division of time which scientists call the Period of Mind Life, that man, as we know him, began to rule the earth. In another story, later in the series, we shall learn about ancient man.

DOROTHY COCKRELL, Guide-lecturer.

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MUSEUM STORIES FOR CHILDREN

SERIES II

NUMBER THREE

MARCH 14, 1925

FIELD MUSEUM OF NATURAL HISTORY

ROOSEVELT ROAD AND LAKE MICHIGAN

CHICAGO

The Museum has given you several films which show the far north in the Winter. The film today will show how that bleak land appears in the Summer.

D. C. Davies, Director

REINDEER

"When what to my wondering eyes should appear,
But a miniature sleigh and eight tiny reindeer,
With a little old driver so lively and quick,
I knew in a moment must be St. Nick."

Wasn't it from that poem, and from other peoms and stories of Santa Claus that you first heard of reindeer? In Europe, little boys and girls believe that Santa Claus, or St. Nicholas, comes to them on Christmas eve riding on a gray horse; but in America, Santa's sleigh has always been pulled by reindeer. And that is rather strange; for the reindeer is a European animal, while his American cousin is known as the caribou.

In very ancient times—before the coming of the great glaciers—reindeer lived as far south as the British Isles and France. With the retreating of the glaciers, they went back to the north country whence they had come and now are found only in the far northern "lands of the mid-night sun."

The reindeer of various parts of Europe and the caribou of America differ from one another in small details of size and color; but all of them are similar in appearance and all have similar habits. Antlers are found on both the male and female reindeer; and new ones are grown each year. They differ from those of other deer in having one large, broad part which grows straight forward along the top of the nose. It protects the nose when fights occur; and it is said to be used as a snow-shovel in digging for the mosses and lichens upon which the reindeer feeds. Every reindeer has four toes on each foot—two large ones which serve as hoofs and two smaller ones which are called dew-claws. When the foot spreads out, these four toes make an effective snow-shoe. In winter, the hoofs become very sharp and keep the reindeer from slipping on the ice.

Near the north end of George M. Pullman Hall, you will find a Kenai caribou. Notice his antlers, his hoofs, and his muzzle. Compare him with other deer nearby and see what differences you can find. The moss on the floor of the case is like that which he enjoyed eating in his northern home.

On the south side of Hall 17, in the second case from the west end, is the skeleton of a woodland caribou. Here again notice the hoofs and the leg bones. Where is the caribou's heel? How many teeth has he in his upper jaw?

Reindeer and caribou have been hunted by early men in Europe and by Eskimo and Indians in America for thousands of years. They have used his flesh for food, his antlers and bones for making weapons and his skin for making clothing and tent covers. See if you can find some reindeer skin garments in Mary D. Sturges Hall.

ELEPHANT SEALS

Elephant seals, or sea elephants, are the strangest members of the seal family. They are very large; and they differ from all other seals in having a nose which reminds one somewhat of an elephant's trunk. They shed their outer skin, hair and all, once every year. There is a skeleton of a sea elephant near the right whale skeleton in Hall 17. You can tell at a glance that it is a water animal. His long, slender body is just the right shape for going through the water and his strongly built flippers must make him a fine swimmer. Look at the flippers closely. Can you find bones that are somewhat like your shoulder bone, your upper arm, your lower arm bones, your wrist and fingers? Each one of the finger bones in the front flippers was once tipped with a long finger-nail. The seal found them most useful in scratching off the dry skin at the moulting season and in driving away troublesome flies. Can you see the place in his head where his trunk was attached? What do you think of his teeth? Could he chew his food well?

Once upon a time there were many elephant seals on the islands of the southern oceans. They were killed in large numbers for the valuable oil which can be extracted from their fat. At one time, scientists thought that Northern elephant seals were extinct; but in late years they have been found once more on Guadelupe Island, off the west coast of Lower California, Mexico. There they are protected from hunters by the Mexican government and are increasing in numbers. Our motion picture film was taken by Mrs. Keith Spaulding on that island.

DOROTHY COCKRELL, Guide-lecturer

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CHICAGO

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D. C. DAVIES, Director.

THE ORANGE AND ITS RELATIVES

Wouldn't you like to know what little boy or girl was the very first to eat an orange? Perhaps it was a dark-skinned child of the Dravidians who lived in India before the white race settled there; or, perhaps, there were people in India even before the Dravidians who tried to eat that lovely golden fruit. But we may be sure that they did not eat it with much pleasure; for the wild orange of India, although beautiful in appearance, was filled with bitter pulp. It was so bitter that the Arabs, who first carried the orange from India to the West, used it only as medicine. They must have considered it an important drug, however, for they took it with them into Palestine, Eastern Africa and southern Europe; and they gave it the name *narunj* from which our word orange was derived.

Meanwhile, under the hands of skillful Chinese gardeners, the sweet orange appeared. Some scientists think that it was grown from the bitter orange. Others think that it grew first as a wild sweet orange in southern China. From China, it was taken to India and from there it travelled to Europe where it was raised as early as the fourteenth century. In 1498, when Vasco de Gama sailed around Africa and reached India by the long sea route, he found an even sweeter orange than he had known before. He carried it back to Portugal with him; and it was the seed of this sweeter orange which later Portuguese and Spanish explorers planted in the West Indies and in Florida. It flourished there; and was later carried to the Gulf States and to California. Now California supplies us with four-fifths of all the oranges eaten in the United States; and even in Europe, California oranges are being sold as well as those from Italy and Spain.

The orange belongs to a large family of trees and shrubs called *Citrus*. Other members of the family that you know and enjoy are the grapefruit, lemon, lime, citron, tangerine and kumquat. All of these fruits were once natives of Asia. The lemon's birth-place was in India. The grapefruit, which is a kind of shaddock or pumelo, probably originated in the islands of the Malay Archipelago. We call it grapefruit because of the grape-like bunches in which it grows. The lime is a kind of lemon; and both the tangerine and kumquat are varieties of orange. The citron differs from all other members of the family in having an extremely thick rind. It is not eaten as a fresh fruit; but is preserved and used as a sweetmeat.

You can find all of these fruits in the fifth case from the south end on the east side of Hall 29. You will think that they are real, when you see them; but they, and all the other fruits and flowers in the room, were made from wax, glass, celluloid and other materials in the Stanley Field Plant Reproduction Laboratories of the Museum. If you hunt, you can find most of your favorite fruits in this hall.

GOLDFISH

Another native of the Old World which has found a home in the New, is the goldfish. In very ancient times, the Chinese admired the carp. They made pets of them and kept them in pools in their gardens; but they were not satisfied with the greenish color of the fish's scales. They began to select the eggs of only the more brightly colored fish for hatching; and, after many years—perhaps, centuries—they succeeded in raising fish which were no longer green, but lovely red gold.

Goldfish were taken from China to Japan about the year 1500 and were admired there almost as much as in China. Many of our "fancy" varieties, with large eyes and fan-shaped tails were bred in Japan.

These handsome little fish were first taken to England in 1691 and they reached America still later. Many of you have goldfish in aquariums at home and there are many more in our park lagoons. In some parts of the southern United States, they have been allowed to go back to their ancient wild life; and there, they have often gone back, too, to their ancient dull color. Look at the carp in the first case of Chicago Food Fishes, Hall 18, and see if he looks at all like your goldfish. The two fish are closely related.

Dorothy Cockrell, Guide-lecturer.

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One of the moving pictures today shows you a chimpanzee. It is but one of a very large and interesting family of animals. The story will tell you where to find other members of the family in the Museum collections. Read it as you look at the animals in the cases and then save it to take to the Lincoln Park Zoo with you next summer.

D. C. DAVIES, Director

CHIMPANZEES

The chimpanzee was first studied by a European in 1699. He found it so man-like that he said, "It is a man, a pygmy man of the woods (*Homo sylvestris*)." Scientists no longer call chimpanzees men. They have found many points of difference which separate them from even the lowest races of men; but even today they are being surprised by the number of man's activities which the chimpanzee can be taught.

It is a common thing to see chimpanzees on the theatre stage or in zoos who can dress and undress, wash their hands and face, comb their hair, eat properly, brush their teeth, drive nails and screws, thread needles, string beads, roller skate, ride bicycles and do many tricks on trapeezes, teeter-totters and the like. A few unusually bright chimpanzees have been taught to count up to six, to match colors and even to pick out blocks bearing the letters of the alphabet and arrange them in order. All of these accomplishments are, of course, the result of months and years of work on the part of animal trainers, aided by the animal's love of imitation and his gentle and peaceable nature.

The wild chimpanzee of tropical Africa satisfies his hunger mainly on the fruits of the forest trees. He is at home either on the ground or swinging from limb to limb among the trees. He occasionally walks slowly in a partially erect position; but more often he goes on four feet—on the flat soles of his feet and the doubled-up knuckles of his hands. Sometimes, when there is a baby in the family, a platform of branches is built in a tree to serve as a nest for the mother and baby while the father remains on guard at the foot of the tree.

You will find chimpanzees at the west end of Hall 15 and at the south end of Hall 22. You can tell the chimpanzee from other large apes by his big ears, his shorter arms and somewhat longer legs and his almost smooth skull. The skeleton in the first case at the east end of Hall 17 will show you some of these differences very clearly.

GORILLAS

The largest relative of the chimpanzee is the gorilla. He, too, is a native of tropical Africa; but we know far less of him than of the chimpanzee because he seldom lives long in captivity and but few scientists have been able to see him in his native haunts.

In general, attempts to train gorillas for stage performances have been failures. The chimpanzee enjoys footlights and crowds. The gorilla dislikes both. One very famous gorilla lived for several years in the home of a skilful animal trainer and was taught to behave almost as well as a human being. He was not taught tricks; but simply was treated as "one of the family".

In Africa, gorillas are said to spend most of their time on the ground and to walk upright, or nearly so, much more than any other ape. This they are able to do because they have a true heel and foot muscles very much like man's. They sometimes go in bands as they search, during the day, for their vegetable food; but at night these bands separate and each family seeks its own sleeping place. Sometimes a platform nest is built for the mother and babies; but more often the family sleeps on the ground. Because of the great size and strength of fully grown gorillas, they have no dangerous enemies except man and therefore need not spend as much time in trees as do the chimpanzees.

Early explorers described the gorilla as a most ferocious beast. Recent ones call him an "amiable giant",—dangerous if injured or provoked; but otherwise ready to avoid trouble rather than seek it.

You will find mounted gorillas near the chimpanzees in Halls 15 and 22; and there are gorilla skeletons in Halls 22 and 17.

OTHER PRIMATES

Apes, baboons, monkeys and lemurs belong to the highest group of animals. It is called the primate group and it includes man. Of all the group, lemurs are least like man. Most of them have pointed muzzles, long tails and thick fur. You can find many of them in Hall 15. Notice their toe nails. Which are flat like man's? Which are claw-like?

The baboons have dog-like noses which are sometimes very brilliantly colored. (See the mandrill, Hall 15). They are adepts at throwing; and bands of them have been known to make it very uncomfortable for travellers by pelting them with stones.

Most of the monkeys have round heads. The South American monkeys can hang by their tails; but tail of the African and Asian monkeys are quite useless. Can you find (Hall 15) a monkey like the organ grinder's?

Gorillas, chimpanzees, orangs and gibbons are all apes. They are more like man in structure, habits and intelligence than are any other animals. There are gibbons in the same case with the gorilla in Hall 15; and a whole family of orangs can be seen in Hall 22.

DOROTHY COCKRELL, Guide-lecturer

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SERIES II

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APRIL 4, 1925

FIELD MUSEUM OF NATURAL HISTORY

ROOSEVELT ROAD AND LAKE MICHIGAN

CHICAGO

The moving picture film today is called "In Houses of Hair"; and it tells the story of the Bedouins who live in tents woven from camels' hair. The Museum has no Bedouin tents in its collections; but it does have models of many interesting dwellings in which American Indians once lived. The story will tell you about some of them.

D. C. DAVIES, Director

INDIAN HOUSES

When you were very little children, did you think that all of our American Indians once lived in pointed tents called *tipis?* Many of the Indians did live in tipis; but there were many more that built houses of entirely different kinds—each one suited to the sort of life which its owner lived.

The Indians of the Northwest Coast were fishermen. They liked to live on the sea shore; but to be able to live there, they had to build very solid houses which would withstand the ocean storms. Great forests of cedar trees grew along the shore; and it was to them that the Indians went, very naturally, for building material. Can you imagine cutting down great trees and splitting them into planks with only stone axes? The Indians managed to do it; and more than that, they decorated their houses by carving figures of their animal totems on the supporting timbers. In Mary D. Sturges Hall (Hall 3) you will find a small model of a house built by the Kwakiutl Indians. See how cleverly they have fastened it together without the use of nails; and notice the platform in front. It served as a porch and as a side-walk from house to house. The Salish House Group at the east end of Hall 4 will show you what the inside of such a dwelling was like.

The Indians of the Woodland were farmers. They lived in the open country near their fields in summer; and in winter they lived in the woods where game was plentiful. They needed a house which could be built easily; and so they made the *wigwam.* Its frame was of saplings bent over and joined to form a dome. In winter, they covered it with mats woven from cat-tail rushes; in summer, with thick sheets of cool bark. Sometimes, in the summer time, they built a large house with a gabled roof. At the west end of Hall 4 are models which show you the winter and summer homes of the Sauk and Fox Indians.

The Indians of the Plains spent much of their time hunting the buffalo. They often moved from one hunting ground to another; and the home which suited them best was a tent or *tipi.* They made its framework from straight trunks or branches of young trees, and its cover from buffalo hides. Sometimes they decorated it with painted patterns. The Cree tipi at the center of Hall 5 and the tipi models in case 13 of the same hall will show you exactly how they were built.

Some Indians living at the edge of the Great Plains hunted the buffalo during the spring and fall and raised maize during the summer. They lived in tipis when they went on hunting trips; but in winter and summer, they lived in earth lodges, or, to the south, in grass houses. In building earth lodges, the Indians made, first of all, a framework of heavy timbers. Against it were placed lighter timbers, then a layer of sticks and grass, and, finally, the whole structure was heaped with earth. Grass houses were made in a similar fashion except that, in place of earth, the outside of the house was covered with bundles of grass placed so as to shed rain. In summer, the lower portion of the house was left open and the family sat or slept on a low platform which covered most of the floor. Earth lodges are to be found in cases 53 and 54 and grass houses in case 55 in Hall 5.

Some of the Indians of New Mexico and Arizona lived in permanent villages and made their living by farming. Others were shepherds and were forced to move from time to time to seek fresh pasture for their flocks. The houses of these shepherds were not expected to serve them for a great length of time; and they were, therefore, rather carelessly built of wood covered with a mixture of bark and clay. The Navaho summer and winter homes in Hall 6, case 40, will show you houses of this kind.

In the permanent villages, or *pueblos*, houses were built to be as lasting as the rocky mesas upon which they were placed. Thick walls of sandstone blocks set together and coated with adobe supported a flat roof constructed of wood and trodden earth. Often these houses were built in terraced groups rising to three or four stories in height. The model of the pueblo of Walpi, Arizona, at the east end of Stanley McCormick Hall (Hall 7) will show you just how a Hopi Indian village looks; and the Hopi House Group will show you the interior of one of these homes.

After seeing all of these Indian houses, in which one do you think you would rather live? Which would you rather build?

DOROTHY COCKRELL, Guide-lecturer.

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The moving picture film today is called "In Houses of Hair"; and it tells the story of the Bedouins who live in tents woven from camels' hair. The Museum has no Bedouin tents in its collections; but it does have models of many interesting dwellings in which American Indians once lived. The story will tell you about some of them.

D. C. DAVIES, Director

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MUSEUM STORIES FOR CHILDREN

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ROOSEVELT ROAD AND LAKE MICHIGAN
CHICAGO

MUSEUM STORIES FOR CHILDREN

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FIELD MUSEUM OF NATURAL HISTORY

ROOSEVELT ROAD AND LAKE MICHIGAN

CHICAGO

One of the films today tells you about "Peculiar Pets." The story will tell you about the origin of some of your common pets.

D. C. DAVIES, Director

THE ORIGIN OF SOME COMMON PETS

Have you ever wondered where your pets came from and to what wild animals they are most closely related? Some of them, like the dog, were first tamed by men so long ago that their origin can only be guessed. Others have been domesticated only recently and their history can easily be traced.

Dogs have been the companions of men for so many thousands of years and in such widely separated parts of the world that it is probable that many different wild dogs were their ancestors. In America, for instance, the dog of the Indians of the Northwest was a domesticated coyote; while the Eskimo of the far North used half-tamed gray wolves as their sledge dogs. East Indian dogs are descended from the wolves of the country; African dogs, from the jackal; and South American dogs, from the maned wolf. All of these breeds were often crossed with both wild and domestic dogs; and the result was the great number of different kinds we know today. You can find wild dogs at about the center of Hall 15.

Farmers in the fertile valley of the Nile River were the first to recognize the cat as the protector of grain from rats and mice. They tamed the Egyptian wild cat and not only made a pet of it but a sacred animal. Meanwhile, Phoenicians, carrying on the trade of the Mediterranean world, found tame cats useful in keeping down the number of mice which infested their ships. They carried cats with them to ports all along the sea; and in southern Europe, these Egyptian cats, crossed with European wild cats, became the ancestors of our modern tabbies. Persian, or so-called Angora, cats are descended from the long-haired cats of Persia, India and Tibet. Wild cats can be found in Hall 15.

A number of our wild rodents, or gnawers, have been tamed to be pets; and in many cases, their colors have been so changed through centuries of careful breeding that it is hard for us to see the relationship between the tame and the wild forms. Our pet mice of many colors are all descended from the little grey house mouse. Their large cousins, the tame rats, were bred from the house, or Norway rat. The house mouse and Norway rat can be found in the case of Mammals of the Chicago Area just back of the elephants in Stanley Field Hall.

Another rodent which has long been domesticated is the guinea-pig. The Incas of Peru were the first to raise tame guinea-pigs; and they kept them not alone as pets but as a reserve food supply. They were taken from South America to Spain by some of Pizarro's men; and from there they were carried, as pets, all over Europe. In England these little animals are called cavies; which is a far better name for them than guinea-pig; for they are not pigs, of course, and have nothing to do with Guinea or Guiana. In the rodent case, Hall 15, you can find the rock cavy and Spix's cavy, both from Brazil. They are related to Cutler's cavy of Peru which is the probable ancestor of the tame guinea-pigs.

There are many different kinds of tame rabbits. The Belgian hare, English, Dutch, Lop-eared, Flemish and butterfly rabbits, are only a few of them; and they differ as widely in color and form as they do in name. But, in spite of their differences, they all have a common ancestor, the European wild rabbit. This little rabbit has been domesticated since very ancient times; and all over Europe it still serves both as a pet and a food animal.

Pigeons, like cats, were raised long ago in ancient Egypt. Their ancestor and that of our modern pigeons was the rock dove. It is still found in Europe and central Asia. In color, it is not unlike the iridescent blue pigeons of our city streets.

The first canaries to be taken to Europe were little greenish-grey singers from the Canary Islands. The bright colors and varied songs of our canaries are due to their skillful breeding, particularly in Germany and England. You can find both wild pigeons and members of the sparrow family, to which canaries also belong, in Hall 21.

DOROTHY COCKRELL, Guide-lecturer.

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FIELD MUSEUM OF NATURAL HISTORY

ROOSEVELT ROAD AND LAKE MICHIGAN

CHICAGO

One of the films today is called "Bobbie's Ark." The animals which appear in it are not named. See if you can be the first to recognize them and to tell where they can be found in the Museum.

D. C. DAVIES, Director.

BLACK BEARS

When the baby black bears were born, they were not much larger than new born rabbits. Their pink skin was covered with only a thin gray down; and their eyes were tightly closed. If their eyes had been open, they could not have seen very much; for their birthplace was quite dark. It was the small den which their mother had carefully dug in the soft earth beneath the roots of an old tree. She had lined it comfortably with dry leaves; and the coming of winter and drifting snows had made a strong roof for it with just one small opening through which a little fresh air came. Outside, it was very cold; for the cubs were born in January; but inside, the den, heated by the mother's body, was cozy and warm.

The father bear was not in the den. In fact, he usually did not "den up" throughout the winter as did the mother bear; but came out from his shelter from time to time to search for food. He took no interest in his babies but left their care entirely to their mother.

She, however, devoted all her time to them. Beginning with their tenth day, their skin was gradually covered with thick black hair. Their eyes opened when they were about forty days old; and by spring, when they were ready to leave the den, they were exactly like their mother, only, of course, much smaller.

So far, their only food had been milk; but now they were taught to find and eat other things. They learned to nip off tender buds and bark from low bushes and trees, to catch mice and rabbits, and to dig up roots and bulbs. As summer came on, they hunted for insects in old logs and stumps, caught fish, and searched for berries. By autumn, they were large and heavy; and their last great feast on nuts from the forest trees wrapped their bodies in the thick layer of fat which would nourish them throughout their winter sleep.

When winter came, the cubs, though half grown, could not be expected to find dens of their own; so the mother brought a new layer of leaves to the old den and made a warm bed for them as well as herself. That year, there were no new cubs born; so, when spring came once more, only the mother and the cubs, now over a year old, came out of the den to begin, anew, their search for food.

During the previous year, the cubs had been taught to find their food and to protect themselves from their enemies. Now that they were almost grown, the mother knew that they no longer needed her protection; so, when summer came, she left them. They found little pleasure in each other's company; so they, too, soon parted to spend a year or two as solitary hunters in the forest and finally to become the parents of new families of baby bears.

That, very briefly, is the story of a black bear's life. Before the coming of white men with their guns and traps, black bears were plentiful throughout North America. Now they have been driven into the forests; but their range is still large. In the east, they are always a deep brownish black. Westward from the Mississippi River, a brown variety occurs called the cinnamon bear; and to the north there is a silvery kind called the glacier bear. All of them can be seen in Hall 15.

Hunters tell us that, in the western part of our country "bear trees" may be found whose scarred bark shows where bears have scratched and bitten them. Marks left by the grizzly bear's claws always show five scars. Those left by the black bear show but four. Look carefully at the black bears in Hall 15 and at the grizzly bears in Hall 16 and see if you can find the reason.

Other animals in the films can also be found in the Museum. Cavies and rats are in Stanley Field Hall and in Hall 15. Salmon are in Albert W. Harris Hall (Hall 18). There is one case of objects made by the Winnebago Indians in Hall 4.

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FIELD MUSEUM OF NATURAL HISTORY

ROOSEVELT ROAD AND LAKE MICHIGAN

CHICAGO

The entertainment today is the last one of the spring course. The autumn course will begin on October third.

D. C. DAVIES, Director.

INDIAN GAMES

Do you like to play games? Indian boys and girls and men and women liked to play, too; and their games were just as interesting and required just as much skill as yours.

Many of the Indian games were played without implements. In the coyote game, for instance, the children formed a long line, the largest child first, the smallest, last. One, who was called the coyote, tried to touch any child in the line; but to do so, he had to pass the protector who jumped back and forth in front of him waving his arms. When the coyote did manage to rush past him and to touch a child, the one touched was out of the game. Meanwhile, the long line moved rapidly back and forth, making it somewhat like your game of "crack the whip."

Other games were played with balls or sticks or similar objects. In Hall 5, case 15, you will find some of those with which members of the Cheyenne and Arapaho tribes played.

Coasting, top spinning and snow snake throwing were favorite winter games. The boy's sled was made of buffalo ribs fastened together with raw-hide thongs. It is said that such a sled could go faster, on a steep hill, than a horse could run. The girl's sled was made of wood and did not go so fast.

Tops were spun on ice or hard packed snow. Some of them were started with a string twisted from plant fibres; others, with a whip made of a short stick with a buckskin lash. The tops were made of wood, horn, stone or clay and were sometimes gayly colored. In the contests, the boy who kept his top spinning longest, won.

Several kinds of snow snakes were used in Indian games. One of them was made from a thin piece of bone, usually part of a rib, about six or eight inches long. Two feathers were attached to it to help in keeping it at the proper angle for sliding across the snow. Another kind was made from a long, polished stick tipped with horn. It, too, was made to glide across the snow or ice; but the third kind (called "throwing arrow" in case 15) was made to strike the ice, snow or earth but once and to glance from it and dart through the air. They, too, were of wood tipped with horn; but they were much shorter than the real snow snakes and were often stuck with feathers. In all snow snake games, the winners were those who made their snakes go furthest.

As soon as spring melted the ice in the rivers and lakes, many Indians threw their winter game implements into the water; for they feared that winter might come back if they kept on playing with them; and, furthermore, just as you have baseball and marbles and jacks to play in the spring, so they had their spring and summer games.

One of them was the wheel and dart game. The wheels, from four to fifteen inches in diameter, were filled with interlacing strips of rawhide. They were rolled by the boys and men of one side past the players of the other side. As they went by, the players threw their darts at them. The darts were made of straight, peeled and decorated sticks from three to six feet long. If a dart went through a wheel and stopped it, the wheel was "dead" and was not rolled back toward the other side. Throwing the dart through certain parts of the wheel, such as the center, made the score higher. The side won which made the highest score.

A similar game was played with a hoop and dart. The hoop was larger than the wheel and had no interlacing of rawhide. At its four quarters were marks which indicated various scores such as 10, 20, 30 and 40. The darts were sticks from three to four feet long tied in pairs. As the hoop was rolled toward a player, he tried to throw his darts so as to knock the hoop over and leave it resting across them. His score depended upon the marks on the hoop which his darts touched. If both of them touched the same mark, his score was doubled. "Game" was usually a score of 800.

While the men and boys played their games, the women and girls were busy with their own. A favorite was shinny, played with bent clubs and a ball of wood or buckskin. A pair of goal posts was placed at each end of the field; and each side endeavored to drive the ball between the posts of the opponents' goal. There were no rules as to the number of players or the length of the field. Each goal was a game. Shinny was sometimes played by boys as well as girls.

Football was another girl's game. A large, hair-filled ball of buckskin was kicked up, caught on the foot and kicked again, one girl continuing the kicking until she missed. Each kick counted one and the winning score was usually 300. A slightly larger football was suspended by a thong held in the hand and was kicked repeatedly in a similar game. Another ball game called "double ball" was played with two small balls fastened together with a short thong. They were tossed and caught on bent sticks or carried on sticks to the opponents' goal.

These are but a few of the games played by Indian boys and girls. If you search through the Indian collections, you will find many others.

DOROTHY COCKRELL, Guide lecturer

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